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ABSTRACT

Several key concepts shed light on the traits and processes of leadership in educational settings. First, the term leadership can be understood as the act of persuading others to set aside individual concerns and pursue a common goal, with communication representing a key ability of leaders. The Communication Model provides a useful, open systems approach to analyzing the effectiveness of leader-constituent communications. In the model, the inputs of source and receiver are converted by the process of message and channel into an effective or ineffective communication process. The systemic approach to the study of leadership maintains that inputs are resources available to leaders and constituents, throughputs are processes by which these resources are converted into outcomes, and feedback is the communication of outcomes assessment back into the system. Another key concept of leadership is the vision community, formed when leaders have a vision and create a desire in others to make the vision a reality, while to be successful in the 21st century, leaders will need to acquire new skills related to systems thinking, change management, and team building. College leaders should also be aware of the development of leadership theory, including classical, behavioral, and modern approaches. Finally, while Total Quality Management has been implemented by some educational leaders, these efforts have been less successful than expected, primarily because top administrators often exempt themselves from the processes. Contains 11 references. (HAA)

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EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

by

Brian Satterlee, Ed.D.
Dean, Adult and Continuing Education
Warner Southern College (FL)

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Brian Satterlee, Ed.D.
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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to discuss several concepts of executive leadership and to integrate these concepts with current higher educational practices. The term *leadership*, in this paper, is defined as persuading other people to set aside their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the welfare of a group.

The *Communication Model* provides a framework by which one may analyze the effectiveness and efficiency of leader/constituent communications. The *Communication Model* fits the systems perspective of leadership. The inputs of source and receiver are converted by the process of message and channel into an effective or ineffective communication process. Once the assessment of effectiveness is made, that information is used by the inputs to improve the next systemic iteration. Thus, the *Communication Model* provides an open systems approach to leadership communication.

The systemic approach to the study of leadership maintains that inputs are resources available to leaders and their constituents, throughputs are processes by which these resources are converted into outcomes, and feedback is the communication of outcomes assessment back into the system. Outcomes may be assessed by five major factors: mission, vision, quality, service, and leadership.

Futurist Joel Barker, in his video *Discovering the Future: Power of Vision*, states that a significant vision of the future precedes success. It is not enough for leaders to have a vision; they must create a desire in others to make the vision a reality. Hence, a *vision community*. Key ingredients of the vision community are included.

Many agree that leadership in the 21st century will be different from leadership in the 1990's. Naisbitt and Aburdene, in *Megatrends 2000* (1990), provide data in support of projected the changes in leadership.

Leaders will need to acquire New World Leadership Skills to be successful in the 21st century. To use these skills, leaders will be required to develop new managerial qualities. A list of these qualities is provided.

Three different approaches to leadership frame the development of leadership theory during the 20th century: classical, behavioral, and modern. These approaches and their major theorists are discussed. Additionally, the Total Quality Management movement is featured, specifically its major theorists and techniques.

Finally, the issue of leadership vs. management is discussed. Traits of effective leadership are presented.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Brian C. Satterlee currently serves as professor of business and dean of Adult and Continuing Education at Warner Southern College. Warner Southern College, located in Lake Wales, Florida, is a private, four-year liberal arts institution. Prior to joining Warner Southern in 1992, he was director of Technical and Industrial Education at Seminole Community College. He received his doctorate in Occupational Education from Nova Southeastern University, has published nationally within his discipline, and has presented papers at professional conferences. Dr. Satterlee has consulted with numerous organizations on topics related to strategic management in higher education, human resources development, and the development and evaluation of educational programs and services.

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Dean, Adult and Continuing Education
Warner Southern College (FL)

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to discuss several concepts of executive leadership and to integrate these concepts with current higher educational practices. Where appropriate, theory is combined with practice via the extension of the theory to the leadership setting.

The term *leadership*, in this paper, is defined as persuading other people to set aside their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the welfare of a group. Four moral goals of leadership are: (1) releasing human potential; (2) balancing the needs of the individual and the community; (3) defending the fundamental values of the community; and (4) instilling in individuals a sense of initiative and responsibility (Kouzes and Posner, 1995).

CONCEPT 1: THE COMMUNICATION MODEL

Communication is the key ability required for leadership, since it is by way of communication that meanings are created in the minds of constituents. Thus, communication is the foundation upon which leadership is built. Communication may be divided into several major areas, such as: oral vs. written, intentional vs. unintentional, verbal vs. nonverbal, vocal cues, language behaviors, self-disclosure, and interaction roles.

Although leaders must be adeptly skilled in both written and oral communication processes, the focus of this section is the oral. In considering this area of focus, the leader must be aware of how meanings are created in the minds of others, both intentional and unintentional. The *Communication Model* (source unknown) provides a framework by which one may analyze

the effectiveness and efficiency of leader/constituent communications. The model is presented in the following table.

SOURCE	MESSAGE	CHANNEL	RECEIVER
communication skills	elements	seeing	communication skills
attitudes	content	hearing	attitudes
knowledge	treatment	touching	knowledge
social system	structure	smelling	social system
culture	code	tasting	culture

Numerous factors must be considered when applying the model to verbal and nonverbal communication processes, such as facial expression, eye contact, hand gestures, physical appearance (body shape and size, styles of dress, cleanliness, etc.), body movements, and body orientation. Vocal cues also affect the communication process. These include regional dialects; how one pronounces words; speaking with adequate volume; rate and fluency of words uttered; vocal pitch; resonance of the voice; and vocal inflection, which may show the emotional tone of the communication. One important aspect of organizational communication is the effect of office location and layout on constituents. Open layouts are, in general, more conducive to effective communication than traditional layouts where people are separated by objects in the room. Environmental aspects of the workplace may affect the communication process. Seating arrangements, lighting, temperature, noise, and decorations all combine to influence the communication process.

Another influence on the model is language behavior. Communication problems arise from problems such as bypassing, inference making, polarizing, and signal reactions. Bypassing is defined as the miscommunication pattern that occurs when the sender and the receiver miss each other with their meaning (Haney, 1992). Inference making includes making assumptions and drawing conclusions. Appropriate use of inference making is acceptable; excessive use is not.

Another aspect considered in the model is self-disclosure, or the extent to which one voluntarily shares personal information with others. Effective leaders know the appropriate level of self disclosure for each communication setting. Luft (1970) provides a model for analyzing self disclosure. The Johari Window classifies how one relates to others according to four quadrants, or "window panes."

The final aspect of the model concerns leader/follower interaction roles. Benne and Sheats (1948) were the first to promote a classification of roles: task, group building and maintenance, and individual. Task roles are directed toward accomplishing objectives through the facilitation of problem-solving. Group building and maintenance roles assist the interpersonal functioning of a group. Individual roles promote self-centered behaviors that satisfy the individual's needs rather than contribute to the needs of the group. The authors state that it is desirable to learn the task roles and maintenance roles, and to avoid the individual roles.

The *Communication Model* fits the systems perspective of leadership. The inputs of source and receiver are converted by the process of message and channel into an effective or ineffective communication process. Once the assessment of effectiveness is made, that information is used by the inputs to improve the next systemic iteration. Thus, the *Communication Model* provides an open systems approach to leadership communication.

CONCEPT II: FACTORS OF LEADERSHIP

The systemic approach to the study of leadership maintains that inputs are resources available to leaders and their constituents, throughputs are processes by which these resources are converted into outcomes, and feedback is the communication of outcomes assessment back into the system. Outcomes may be assessed by five major factors: mission, vision, quality, service, and leadership. The following is a discussion of how each factor of leadership may be applied to a technical college.

Mission

The mission statement provides the overall direction in which an organization is headed. For example, the mission of a technical college may be to provide: (1) courses of instruction that prepare students for new careers, career change, and career advancement; (2) academically under prepared students with basic skills and developmental education programs designed to provide the skills necessary to succeed in the next level of education; (3) continuing education and community service programs responsive to the needs of the business and industry community; and (4) meaningful access to any person or establishment in its service area who can benefit from college programs and services.

Vision

Kouzes and Posner, in *The Leadership Challenge* (1995), list five practices common to successful leaders: (1) challenge the process; (2) inspire a shared vision; (3) enable others to act; (4) model the way; and (5) encourage the heart. The second practice concerns vision, the force by which leaders "invent the future." For example, the vision for a technical college may be to become a national leader in technology-based educational delivery systems. The task of the leader

in this example is to create a desire in college constituents to move forward to this desired future situation. Here, the *Communication Model* becomes a powerful tool for the leader to use in attaining the vision.

Quality

According to the Council on Competitiveness (1996), the concept of quality has changed drastically since the early 1980's. At that time, quality was thought of as an inspection tool for improving product specifications. It generally represented a separate organizational function within the organization. As the competitive environment evolved during the 1980's so did the notion of quality. High quality products were not enough. In order to remain competitive in world markets, companies had to become more customer-oriented and market-oriented. They had to develop high performance work groups, and aggressively pursue cost reduction. Quality was no longer a separate function. It was the way of doing business. Today, quality is best understood as principles and methods to improve the performance of organizations in achieving their objectives.

While there is no fixed definition of quality, three factors are widely accepted as central to a successful quality program: customer satisfaction, executive-level leadership, and employee involvement (Council on Competitiveness, 1996). These three factors should provide the conceptual framework for the implementation of a quality improvement process in a technical college.

Service

Kouzes and Posner, in *The Leadership Challenge* (1995), list four leader characteristics that followers admire: honesty, competency, forward-looking, and inspiration. Leaders can accomplish nothing without followers. If a leader is to inspire followers, he or she must demonstrate by words and actions that he or she is there to facilitate successful performance objectives. Reaching these objectives is in the best interest of the follower. This is what is meant by the term *service*. For example, when the president of a technical college conducts external advancement activities, he or she is providing a service to constituents by obtaining resources needed by constituents to successfully perform their jobs. The following poem illustrates the concept of service.

A leader is best
When people barely know that he exists.
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him,
Worse when they despise him.
Fail to honor ***(serve)*** people,
They fail to honor (***serve***) you;
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will say, "We did this ourselves."
(Lao Tzu)

Leadership

Certain skills are required by leaders if they are to be successful. According to the Harvard Business Review, the following skills are required for executive success: (1) human relations skills; (2) tactfulness and diplomacy; (3) consideration for other's sensitivity; (4) patience and tolerance; (5) problem-solving skills; (6) high regard for communication skills; (7) assertive verbal skills; (8) ability to organize time and priorities; and (9) ability to delegate. Technical college leaders should regularly compare their actions with the skills on this list.

CONCEPT III: VISION COMMUNITY

Futurist Joel Barker, in his video *Discovering the Future: Power of Vision*, states that a significant vision of the future precedes success. It is not enough for leaders to have a vision; they must create a desire in others to make the vision a reality. Hence, a *vision community*. Key ingredients of the vision community are as follows:

1. Visions are developed by leaders, not followers.
2. Visions must be shared with and supported by followers.
3. Visions must be comprehensive and detailed; generalities won't do.
4. Visions must be positive and inspiring, i.e., be worth the effort to attain.
5. Values are the way one measures the rightness of a decision. They do not give direction, only vision gives direction.

Barker concludes the video by stating that, "Vision without action is merely a dream. Action without vision just passes time. Vision with action can change the world." It is widely accepted that technical college leadership develops institutional vision. However, in many instances, the activity terminates at that level. Technical college leaders must take on the role of servant leadership by the creation of a vision community.

CONCEPT IV: NEW WORLD LEADERSHIP SKILLS AND QUALITIES

Much has been written concerning the evolving changes in society, economics, education, technology, and demographics. The year 2000 seems to be the impetus for the writings. Many agree that leadership in the 21st century will be different from leadership in the 1990's. Naisbitt and Aburdene, in *Megatrends 2000* (1990), provide data in support of projected the changes in leadership.

Leaders will need to acquire New World Leadership Skills to be successful in the 21st century. These are: (1) systems thinking; (2) negotiation; (3) conflict management; (4) change management; (5) continuous improvement; (6) team building; (7) network-relationship management; (8) the leader as implementor; and (9) being visionary is not enough.

In order to use these skills, leaders will be required to develop new managerial qualities, including: (1) administrative ability; (2) leadership; (3) sensitivity to social and political influences; (4) ability to balance constituent interests; (5) responsibility for advocacy; (6) familiarity with politics and public affairs; (7) requisite talents for success in Washington, D.C.; (8) strategic imagination for the future; (9) set moral standards; (10) profit consciousness; (11) poise; and (12) concluding observations. These skills and qualities will be of particular importance to college leaders as they lead their institutions into the 21st century.

CONCEPT V: THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

Three different approaches to leadership frame the development of leadership theory during the 20th century: classical, behavioral, and modern. The first approach, classical, began at the beginning of the 20th century, and includes two separate schools of thought: scientific management and administrative theory. Scientific management is based on the concept that the scientific method can be applied to the workplace and management activities. Early major theorists include Frederick Taylor (the father of scientific management); the Gilbreaths (time and motion study proponents), and Henry Gannt (developed the Gannt Chart). Administrative theory ushered in a general theory of management, and the impact of roles in the workplace. Major theorists include Henri Fayol (the first to develop a general theory of management) and Max Weber (developed the concept of bureaucracy).

The behavioral approach was developed as a direct result of the scientific approach. This approach removes the focus from supervisory procedures and industrial management techniques to the motivation of people. Major theorists include Mary Parker Follett (who believed that the role of leaders was to cultivate group interaction), Elton Mayo (who studied the impact of motivation on productivity and output), Abraham Maslow (developed the hierarchy of needs), Douglas McGregor (studied leadership style, i.e., Theory X and Theory Y), and Chris Argyris (studied human and organizational development, i.e., Model I and Model II).

The modern approaches to management include three schools of thought: quantitative, systems theory, and contingency. Several aspects of the quantitative approach will be discussed later in the section concerning Total Quality Management. The term *system*, derived from the Greek *systema*, refers to an organized relationship among components. Key characteristics of a system are inputs, throughputs, outputs, and feedback. The systems approach to management provide plans, order, arrangements, and methods to an organization. Contingency theory is an attempt to synthesize the previous approaches. The theory posits that leadership should be dependent upon the circumstances of the leadership situation. Circumstances refer to the leader characteristics, follower characteristics, and situational characteristics.

College leaders should be aware of the development of leadership theory. It seems that the most appropriate approach for those institutions would be primarily systematic, with application of contingency theory. What is meant by this is that a systems approach provides the conceptual construct of the organization, with contingencies being expected in the feedback phase of the system.

CONCEPT VI: TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Virtually everything that has been written about TQM explicitly draws on the works of W. Edwards Deming, Joseph Juran and Karou Ishikawa, the primary authorities of the TQM movement. Deming, Ishikawa, and Juran share the view that an organization's primary purpose is to stay in business, so that it can promote the stability of the community, generate products and services that are useful to customers, and provide a setting for the satisfaction and growth of organization members. The TQM strategy for achieving its normal outcome is rooted in four interlocked assumptions about quality, people, organizations, and the role of senior management (Hackman and Wageman, 1995).

The first assumption listed by the authors concerns quality, which is assumed to be costly to an organization than is poor workmanship. A fundamental premise of TQM is that the costs of poor quality (such as inspection, rework, lost customers, and so on) are far greater than the costs of developing processes that produce high-quality products and services. Producing quality products and services is not merely less costly but, in fact, is essential to long-term organizational survival. The second assumption is about people. Employees naturally care about the quality of work they do and will take initiatives to improve it-so long as they are provided with the tools and training that are needed for quality improvement, and management pays attention to their ideas. The third assumption is that organizations are systems of highly interdependent parts, and the central problems they face invariably cross traditional functional lines. Cross-functional teams should not set overall directions; rather, each line division should set its own goals using local objective-setting procedures. The final assumption concerns senior management. Quality is viewed as ultimately and inescapably the responsibility of top management.

The TQM authorities specify four principles that should guide any organizational interventions intended to improve quality (Hackman and Wageman, 1995). The first is to focus on work processes. The quality of products and services depends most of all on the processes by which they are designed and produced. The second principle is analysis of variability. Uncontrolled variance in processes or outcomes is the primary cause of quality problems and must be analyzed and controlled by those who perform an organization's front-line work. Only when the root causes of variability have been identified are employees in a position to take appropriate steps to improve work processes. The third principle is management by fact. TQM calls for the use of systematically collected data at every point in a problem-solving cycle, from determining high-priority problems, through analyzing their causes, to selecting and testing solutions. The fourth principle is learning and continuous improvement. The long-term health of an enterprise depends on treating quality improvement as a never-ending quest.

Finally the authors provide the following interventions developed for TQM: explicit identification and measurement of customer requirements; creation of supplier partnerships; use of cross-functional teams to identify and solve quality problems; use of scientific methods to monitor performance and to identify points of high leverage for performance improvement; the use of statistical tools to monitor and analyze work processes.

Literally dozens of "quality tools" have been described in the literature. Three of the most commonly used tools are control charts, Pareto analysis, and cost-of-quality analysis. A *control chart* provides a pictorial representation of the outputs of an ongoing process. Control charts are used to monitor the performance of a process and to determine whether that process is -"in control" -whether the variance produced by the process is random or attributable to specific

causes. *Pareto analysis* is used to highlight the cost savings that can be achieved by doing work right the first time.

Other interventions include the use of process management heuristics to enhance team effectiveness. The TQM authorities suggest several techniques to help quality teams use their collective knowledge effectively in identifying and analyzing opportunities to improve quality. Three of the most commonly used devices are flowcharts, brainstorming, and cause-and-effect diagrams. A *flowchart* is a pictorial representation of the steps in a work process. Flowcharts, which use standardized symbols to represent types of activities in a process, help members identify activities that are repetitive, that add no value, or that excessively delay completion of the work. *Brainstorming* is used by groups to generate lists of ideas about matters such as the potential causes of a problem, possible solutions, and the issues likely to be encountered in implementing those solutions. A *Cause and effect diagram* or "fishbone" was developed by Ishikawa to graphically represent the relationship between a problem and its potential causes.

Can TQM concepts be applied to educational leadership? A mood favoring some kind of change in the government and management of public education has already begun at the grassroots level (Lewis, 1994). Administrators have begun to borrow from the industrial movement for Total Quality Management (TQM). Few of these efforts are working as well as expected. Despite the enthusiasm for TQM, most examples of its use in education would embarrass the movement's founder, W. Edward's Deming. The main reason is that many top administrators exempt themselves from the process, and other managers cannot let go of the control of the organization enough to allow the forces for fundamental change to take over.

Why are these well-meaning efforts coming up short? The author suggests at least two reasons. First, most educators underestimate the profound changes taking place throughout society - changes in demographics and economics, in the nature of work, in the global marketplace, and in the impact of technology on how we acquire and deal with knowledge. In the past, schools have been gatekeepers of access to formal knowledge, determining how and in what sequence children and young people learned.

This gap between schools and the rest of the society will only widen as the technology available to students outside of school continues to increase their access to information. The frequent underestimation of the pace and depth of the changes now taking place leads directly to the second reason that educators seem satisfied merely to tinker with the system. This is the lack of good leadership. Preparation programs for administrators, for the most part, reflect what school systems used to be, not what they are becoming. Teacher education and staff development are primarily organized around disjointed ideas, not around the rich knowledge about how children learn that would encourage teachers to take lead in changing outmoded systems.

Can the way most school boards operate today give us an education system appropriate for the 21st century? The author suggested that school boards operate as corporate boards, meeting quarterly to deal with major policy decisions and leaving day-to-day operations up to the management they have selected (Lewis, 1994).

COCNCEPT VII: LEADERSHIP VS. MANAGEMENT

Leadership and management are two different concepts. However, they are not exclusive of one another. It has been said that managers get people to do things; leaders get people to want to do things. Leaders need to perform the roles of management, and managers need to perform the roles of leaders. Smith (1997) delineates these roles as follows:

LEADER	MANAGER
charts a course providing direction	carries out planning and budgeting
provides guidance and counsel	oversees organizing and staffing
encourages people to follow their example	follows orders
motivates and inspires	controls and solves problems
creates an environment for change	maintains control and order
builds relationships and trust	protects status quo
trains and teaches	writes memorandums
questions rules and regulation	follows rules and regulations

Managers maintain. Leaders innovate. Smith (1997) lists several traits of the innovative leader: (1) they have a mission; (2) they create a vision; (3) they trust employees; (4) they keep their heads in a crisis; (5) they encourage risk taking; (6) they are experts; (7) they know what is essential; (8) they listen; and (9) they are teachers and mentors

CONCLUDING CONCEPT: EFFECTIVE TRAITS

Leaders are effective. Covey (1987) lists seven habits of highly effective people:

1. Be proactive -- take the initiative and responsibility to make things happen;
2. Begin with the end in mind -- start with a clear destination to understand where you are now, where you're going and what you value most;
3. Put first things first -- manage yourself, organize and execute around priorities;
4. Think win/win -- see life as a cooperative, not a comprehensive arena; where success is not achieved at the expense or exclusion of the success of others;
5. Seek first to understand -- understand then be understood to build the skills of empathic listening that inspires openness and trust;
6. Synergize -- apply the principles of cooperative creativity and value differences; and
7. Renewal -- preserving and enhancing your greatest asset, yourself, by renewing the physical, spiritual, mental and social/emotional dimensions of your nature.

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